

1 **How Recent Smart Road Technologies and Construction Materials Can**
2 **Contribute to the Sustainability of the Road Infrastructure**

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4 **Abstract**

5 Rapid worldwide urbanization poses many challenges for the achievement of sustainable
6 cities. The continuous growth in population leads to an increase in resources and services
7 demands which must be addressed together with the rising environmental concerns. The
8 transport sector plays a significant role in enhancing a more sustainable and greener
9 environment which can be achieved with the use of data-driven ICT, innovative
10 technologies and environmentally friendly materials. The use of data-driven ICT and
11 innovative technologies on transport infrastructure are often referred to as smart
12 infrastructures. Among the different smart infrastructures are comprehended the smart
13 roads. Nowadays, an extensive number of smart road solutions exist and are deployed to
14 improve the sustainability of the transport sector and urban areas. This paper presents an
15 overview on smart roads, its components, and on how recent smart road technologies and
16 non-traditional road materials can contribute to the sustainability of the road
17 infrastructure. Finally, this paper discusses the strategies of the Norwegian authorities to
18 enhance a safe and efficient transport sector, in line with the global sustainable
19 development goals.

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29 materials, new technologies.

30 **1. Introduction:**

31 According to the UN-Department of Economics and Social Affairs (2018), the worldwide
32 population which lives in urban areas is expected to arise from 55.3% (in 2018) to more
33 than 60% by 2030. The number of cities with at least a million inhabitants has been
34 growing from 371 (in 2000) to 548 (in 2018) and by 2030 are expected to reach 706. Still,
35 from 2018 to 2030 megacities (cities with more than 10 million of inhabitants) are
36 expected to increase from 33 to 43. While the urban population is expected to arise, the
37 rural population is expected to decrease from 45% (in 2018) to 40% or even less (in 2030)
38 (UN-Department of Economics and Social Affairs, 2018). This rapid urbanization, and
39 migration from rural to urban areas, leads to a growing demand of resources and services
40 which must be addressed together with the rise of environmental concerns, such as the
41 reduction of CO₂ emissions, air, noise, water pollution, and waste production
42 (Brahmanand Mohanty 2012; Arbabi and Mayfield 2016; Silpa Kaza et al., 2018; OECD
43 2020). The need to satisfy these demands and, at the same time, lower their environmental
44 impact is, thus, a priority for the sustainable development of urban areas (Council of the
45 European Union 2006; United Nations General Assembly 2015). In this context, the

46 actions to be undertaken to achieve these sustainable development goals include, among
47 others, a responsible consumption and production of energy resources and a more
48 sustainable transport system (United Nations General Assembly, 2015). To satisfy the
49 continuously growing energy and transport demand in a sustainable manner is a complex
50 challenge in which smart cities can be a potential solution. Quoting the International
51 Telecommunication Union (ITU), smart sustainable city refers to “(...) *an innovative*
52 *city that uses information and communication technologies (ICTs) and other means to*
53 *improve quality of life, efficiency of urban operation and services, and competitiveness,*
54 *while ensuring that it meets the needs of present and future generations with respect to*
55 *economic, social, environmental as well as cultural aspects”* (United for Smart
56 Sustainable Cities, 2016). Therefore, deploying data-driven Information Communication
57 Technologies (ICT), smart cities enhance a higher quality and efficiency of city services
58 finally improving the relative livability, economic growth, competitiveness and reducing,
59 at the same time, its environmental impact (Hall et al. 2000; Harrison et al. 2010; Caragliu
60 et al., 2013; Yin et al. 2015), and, ultimately, improving its sustainability (Bifulco et al.
61 2016). Sustainability in cities calls also for sustainability in road transportation (Wadhwa
62 2000). A sustainable transport system, with relative urban areas, needs an
63 interdisciplinary and integrated approach between transport system, public space, human
64 activities (K. Lu, Han, y Zhou 2018; Yang et al. 2019). However also the use of ICT and
65 innovative technologies can improve the sustainability in the transport sector (Gössling
66 2018) (Jang et al. 2020).

67 Transport systems improve the quality of life of its dwellers by promoting the use of
68 properly designed public transport solutions (Boschmann y Kwan 2008; Xia et al. 2017).
69 Each of these solutions have a different impact on how sustainable they are and need to

70 be assessed. To assist decision makers while choosing the most suitable transport
71 solution, (Abdel Warith et al. 2020) build a framework, the Dynamic Index for National
72 Advancements (DINA), to evaluate and compare the sustainable impact of each solutions.
73 Also, McLeod and Curtis (2020) investigated the impact of the inter-relationship between
74 citizen's health, safety and sustainability of the investigated solutions.

75 The use of ICT in the road transport infrastructure is referred to as smart roads, in
76 academic literature (Zhao y Wu 2015; Sun et al. 2018). Thus, smart road infrastructures
77 are an opportunity to significantly improve road traffic safety, congestion, operations and,
78 simultaneously, optimize the energy resources and its environmental impact (Sun et al.
79 2018; Trubia et al. 2020; Kamal et al., 2018). The need to collect the already existing
80 works regarding road technologies and environmentally friendly materials is a priority
81 which must be addressed to bring the road transport infrastructure toward more
82 sustainable paths.

83 This article presents an overview of the recent insights on the smart roads and
84 environmental road materials to improve the sustainability of a road infrastructure. After
85 presenting the smart roads and the state of the art related to them, this article focuses on
86 the materials which can be used to reduce the environmental impact of a road
87 infrastructure and discusses the Norwegian strategies for the enhancement of a more
88 sustainable road transport system. Norwegian authorities, within their *National Transport*
89 *Plan 2022-2033* (Det Kongelege Samferdeselsdepartement 2021) and the *National*
90 *Climate Plan 2021-2030* (Det Kongelege Klima Og Miljodepartement 2021) are
91 promoting the construction, planning and design of a safe, efficient, and environmentally
92 friendly transport systems in line with the global sustainable development goals.

93 2. The Background of Smart Roads

94 Data-driven ICT can improve the development of sustainable cities by improving the
95 sustainability in transport infrastructure and in transport system (Puodziukas, Svarpliene,
96 y Braga 2016; Gössling 2018; Bamwesigye y Hlavackova 2019). According to the
97 definition of (Zhao & Wu, 2015) “*Smart road is an informational zed road which, on the*
98 *basis of satisfying basic traffic operation, aim to provide innovative service that contains*
99 *self-aware, self-adapt, information interaction, and energy harvesting*” (Zhao and Wu
100 2015). Together with defining what a smart road is, Zhao & Wu (2015) define four
101 functionalities of the smart road each of which can be sub classified in specific tasks.
102 Here are described the four functionalities and subsequent classification according to the
103 same authors (Zhao & Wu, 2015):

- 104 • Self-aware: Real-time and automatic evaluation of the road’s health condition.
105 The self-awareness function of the smart road is subsequently categorized in four
106 sub-functions based on the monitoring interest from the road practitioners: self-
107 aware of pavement quality (surface, structure and performance), self-aware of
108 road infrastructure, at base and sub-base levels (basic and structure conditions),
109 self-aware of slopes, self-aware of traffic volume conditions.
- 110 • Self-adapt: Automatic adaptation of the road to different scenarios, e.g. road
111 condition and road weather. The self-adapting function comprise the following
112 subtasks: road maintenance operations without external assistance, self-melting
113 of snow/ice, self-drain of pavement-water, self-temperature control (to avoid too
114 high or too low temperature) self-clean (e.g. absorb road contaminants) and self-
115 traffic-adjustments.

116 • Information interaction: the ability to exchange information, thus communicate,
117 between data-driven ICT of road users, smart roads and road authorities and road
118 practitioners. More details are available in section three of this work.

119 • Energy harvesting: the ability of the road to collect and utilize energy from the
120 environment. More details are available in section four of this work.

121 Following the definition of smart roads and its functionalities provided by Zhao and Wu
122 2015, Pompigna y Mauro 2021 envision the smart road as a system in which each
123 functionality has to cooperate and work synergistically to the successful and efficient
124 deployment of the smart road system from the road users. Nowadays, there are an
125 extensive number of projects worldwide related to smart road infrastructures. The recent
126 reviews from Toh et al. (2020); Trubia et al. (2020); Hashem and Cardino (2020) present
127 the latest advancements related to these innovative projects focused on smart roads.

128 According to Toh et al. (2020) there are ten technologies which enhance the roads to:
129 harvest and store energy, charge electric vehicles, statically and dynamically weigh
130 vehicles, generate music; improve traffic violation controls, improve rescuing operations,
131 enable communication between road users, infrastructure, and road practitioners. Also,
132 Trubia et al. (2020) describes smart road environments as able to collect and store energy,
133 monitor traffic and road conditions, and enable communication between road users, the
134 infrastructure, and practitioners. In this line, Hashem and Cardino (2020) focus their work
135 on how smart roads can harvest and store energy and be smartly maintained using mobile
136 phones. In fact, smartphone applications can alert road authorities, leading to prompt
137 maintenance action if required.

138 These innovations, according to their authors (Trubia et al. 2020; Toh et al. 2020; Hashem
139 y Cardino 2020), improve, in different manners, the road environment and its related

140 traffic conditions. For instance, roads can be adapted to produce clean energy that can be
141 later used to power electric vehicles, road furniture (e.g., road lights and the electric grid),
142 therefore facilitating the transition to a more sustainable use of the roads. Technologies
143 as smart traffic signs and speed controls can improve traffic safety by focusing the
144 attention of the driver and improving the comfort and perception of the road and relative
145 surroundings while driving. Among the benefits of such technologies, Trubia et al. (2020)
146 also highlight the ease of drivability for autonomous vehicles on smart road
147 infrastructures.

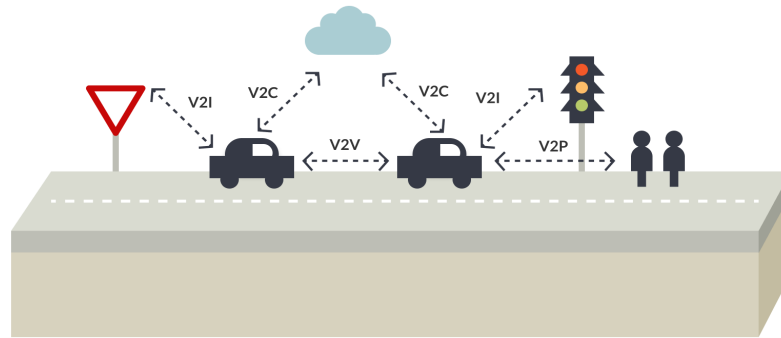
148 **3. The Intelligent Transportation System (ITS) and Communication**

149 **Protocols in Smart Roads:**

150 With the use of ICT, the Intelligent Transport System (ITS) is an essential part of smart
151 road infrastructure. The adoption of ITS provides a wealth of information in traffic, road
152 conditions, and weather forecasts (Setoshita et al. 2020; Losurdo et al. 2017). ITS, based
153 on mobile and fixed sensors, generates information through data. The integration of such
154 data sources, together with appropriate data management tools, can improve the quality
155 of the information regarding the monitoring of the road network in (smart) road
156 environments (Finogeev et al. 2019; El-Wakeel et al. 2018; Giudici et al., 2021). With a
157 focus on winter conditions, Shi (2020) reviews infrastructure communication
158 technologies, namely Connected Infrastructure (CI), which can improve the road
159 maintenance activities and traffic management. With the aim of improving the monitoring
160 of road deterioration, (Lenglet et al., 2017) presents how embedded sensors, integrated in
161 the pavement layers, can provide information regarding early states of damage before
162 appearing on the road's surface, highlighting that this approach might improve the road
163 maintenance operations and traffic safety. Similarly, Toh et al. (2020) reviews how

164 sensors integrated in the pavement are deployed to weigh heavy trucks in a static and
165 dynamic manner on highways.

166 The components of a smart road environment are connected in a way that enhances the
167 exchange of information between vehicles and “everything”, such as the infrastructure,
168 vulnerable road users (e.g., pedestrians, cyclists), and road maintenance personnel
169 through the data cloud (Ullah et al. 2019). The exchange of information between the
170 vehicle and these smart road “elements” relies, among other aspects, on the advanced
171 development of communication technologies. Indeed, the advancements in network
172 communication, such as 5G, provide easier accessibility to the generated information
173 while ensuring a high flow of data communication at high reliability and low latency
174 (Bennis et al., 2018; Molinaro and Campolo 2019). Consequently, continuous real-time
175 exchange of information between vehicles to everything (V2X), infrastructure (V2I),
176 vehicles (V2V), pedestrians (V2P), the cloud (V2C), and other sources is provided (Ullah
177 et al. 2019). Toh et al. (2020) shows multiple cases where such communication improves
178 traffic safety, e.g. vehicles (autonomous or not) that communicate with traffic signs. In
179 fact, wireless digital traffic signs with designed servers can be programmed to send
180 information to oncoming vehicles. Thus, drivers are alerted without losing their focus
181 while driving, which enhances traffic safety. Also, digital traffic signs can communicate
182 with Autonomous Driving Assistance Systems (ADAS) of vehicles in case of traffic
183 violations, ameliorating the speed control of road users while driving (Figure 1).



184 Figure 1. Scheme of communication protocols (modified from Toh et al., 2020)

185

186 Therefore, vehicles play a major role in capturing, processing, and sending information
 187 regarding the road infrastructure to other road users. Vehicle's ADAS systems can
 188 significantly support the human drivers to a point where they can take control of the
 189 vehicle, if needed. Thanks to these advanced ADAS systems and the way in which they
 190 are able to perceive the road, AV are recognized to be "new road users" according to
 191 Storsæter, Pitera, and McCormack 2020. Due to their ability of understand, adapt, and
 192 communicate, AVs and CVs are fundamentals for the development of smart road systems
 193 to a point where sometimes both terms, CVs and smart roads, are adopted interchangeably
 194 (Pompigna y Mauro 2021). The importance of the CV is also supported by Guerrieri
 195 2021, which pictures in the deployment of CVs, AVs, CAVs in the smart road system, a
 196 better efficiency of traffic volume and increased traffic safety. This author suggests that
 197 the geometric design of the road infrastructure has to be adapted to the CAVs to facilitate
 198 the performance of these "new road users" establishing therefore a correlation between
 199 the smart geometric road design and road capacity of the CAVs. Also, Storsæter, Pitera,
 200 and McCormack 2020, describe that traditional road design and maintenance strategies
 201 have to be adapted the needs of AVs and defining how poor road conditions/road furniture

202 (presence of road defects, poor quality of road markings, traffic signs, etc.) might
203 challenge the AVs perception and therefore their deployment.

204 Therefore, in agreement with the mentioned authors, the accomplishment of the AVs,
205 CVs, CAVs is strongly depended on the satisfactory condition of the smart road system
206 and on its smart geometric design, road maintenance and on the smart road construction
207 which needs to come closer to these new road users satisfying also their needs. However,
208 although the challenges, AVs, CVs, CAVs are recognized to have high potentialities to
209 improve the efficiency in road traffic, reducing accidents, lower vehicle exhaust
210 production, thus, reducing the environmental impact of road transport and at the same
211 time be more energy friendly (Chehri y Mouftah 2019). Especially the latter aspect is a
212 major priority to enhance the continuously efficient functioning of the smart road
213 infrastructure's digital solutions.

214 **4. Harvesting Energy from Smart Roads:**

215 Roads can harvest energy which can be used as a clean power supply for different
216 purposes such as charging electric vehicles in motion, digital traffic signs and road lights
217 (Toh et al. 2020), or melting ice and compacted snow layers (Faisal et al., 2016).

218 Nowadays, there are several methodologies which can be deployed to harvest and store
219 energy from roads including energy generation from the sun (solar roads), by mechanical
220 vehicle movement (piezoelectric roads), and by thermoelectric power.

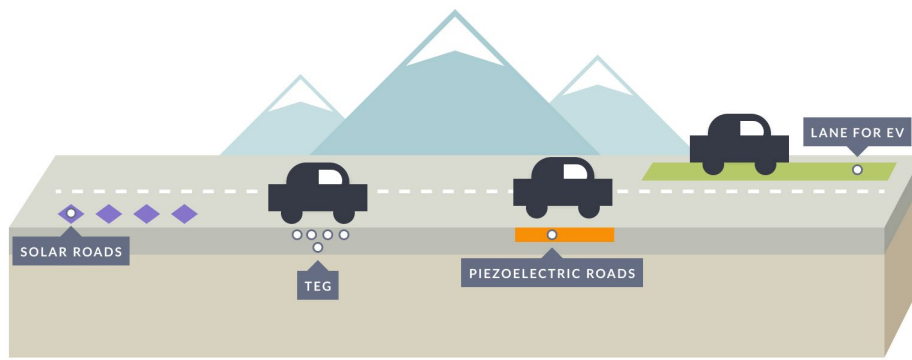
221 Solar roads refer to modular panels located on the top of the pavement surface which
222 capture solar energy, convert it to electricity using photovoltaic cells, and transmit it to
223 collectors which store and re-use the harvested energy (Luque and Hegedus 2003). The
224 panels can be used as stand-alone devices or in grid-connection installations. The former
225 requires a storage unit while the latter does not necessitate it (Luque and Hegedus 2003).

226 The panel's design, structure, and properties influence its performance (Northmore 2014)
227 and, for this reason, its design is under ongoing studies to improve its storage capability.
228 This technology-based panel is acknowledged to be able to sustain structural and
229 environmental conditions such as applied traffic loads, freezing-thawing cycles, and road
230 salting. In addition, these modular panels are easily replaceable, facilitating easier
231 pavement maintenance (Luque and Hegedus 2003; Northmore 2014; Hashem and
232 Cardino 2020). Although the challenges to be solved regarding the captured energy's
233 optimization and storage are numerous, this technology has high potential to produce
234 clean energy, resulting in a positive environmental impact (Luque and Hegedus 2003;
235 Northmore 2014; Settou et al. 2019).

236 Piezoelectric roads refer to piezoelectric elements, such as crystals, located underneath
237 road surfaces which can collect kinetic energy produced by mechanical actions from
238 vehicles and pedestrians. While moving over the pavement surface, the vehicle applies
239 pressure to the piezoelectric elements converting this mechanical action to electrical
240 energy. Although this emerging technology is a promising method of energy production
241 from roads, it also faces challenges regarding the density of the harvested energy or
242 appropriate storage energy methods (Duarte et al. 2013; Hill, Agarwal, y Tong 2014;
243 Calìo et al. 2014).

244 Thermoelectric power can be generated wherever a temperature differential is found. In
245 pavements, thermoelectric power can be produced from the natural temperature
246 difference between pavement layers. This power can be used to operate any electrical
247 unit, from light bulbs to electric cars. However, the Thermoelectric Generators (TEG)
248 that are currently available cannot yet produce a large amount of electricity. For this

249 reason, the applications proposed in this paper are not still energy intensive (Zhu et al.,
250 2019; Shaaban, Abdel-Warith, and Haddock 2019).
251 Finally, to summarize the methods explained in this section regarding the energy source
252 roads, a schematic illustration (Figure 2), based on the concepts proposed by Shi, (2020)
253 and Wang et al., (2018) is shown.
254



255 Figure 2. Smart roads energy harvesting (modified from Wang et al., 2018 and Shi 2020).

256 5. Non-Conventional Environmental Road Material:

257 The use of environmentally friendly materials reduces the impact of new paved roads
258 improving thus their sustainability. Environmentally friendly materials can be used for
259 paving roads' surfaces to reduce the negative environmental impact caused by the actual
260 construction methods. Conventional alternatives, such as Recycled Asphalt Pavement
261 (RAP) has been extensively investigated during the last decades by researchers and
262 engineers. Thus, this section focuses on the use of environmentally friendly materials
263 designed and produced in recent years.

264 The use of recycled tire rubber in pavement construction (e.g., modified asphalt and
265 concrete mixture) and pavement furniture (e.g., speed bumps) gained high attention from
266 research to road practitioners due to its high sustainable potentiality (Shu y Huang 2014).
267 Recycled rubber, when mixed with asphalt, leads to a better performance in terms of
268 pavement distress and resistance to temperature variations, thus improving pavement
269 durability (Shu and Huang 2014; Mashaan et al. 2012; Cao 2007; Tortum et al., 2005).
270 Self-illuminated roads using luminescent cement-based pavement (e.g., phosphor-based
271 material) can be used to reduce both light pollution and energy consumption (Wang et al.
272 2021). These materials are capable of substituting part or all of the external lighting source
273 on roads, being also a promising technology to solve traffic safety problems caused by
274 sudden power outages on roadways, irregular illumination, or drivers' visual fatigue
275 caused by the glare of traditional street lighting (Gao et al. 2018; Wang et al. 2021).
276 The land transport sector is the largest producer of air pollutants, such as NO_x and primary
277 particle matters, mostly emitted by vehicles (Huertas Cardozo y Prato Sánchez 2019),
278 causing several negative health outcomes to inhabitants near roads, especially in big
279 urban areas (Cordero et al. 2020). In this context, researchers, stakeholders, and public
280 administrations are trying to implement photocatalytic pavements, which consist of a
281 surface layer of titanium dioxide (TiO₂) nanoparticles, that can reduce or oxidize both
282 organic and inorganic particles when irradiated by UV light, therefore mineralizing most
283 of the harmful contaminants (Beeldens 2006; Asadi et al. 2014). Although these materials
284 are a promising solution to remove air pollutants in urban areas, this technique is limited
285 by several variables, such as the environment surrounding the roads like relative humidity
286 or UV intensity, complicating the monitoring and interpretation of laboratory and field
287 test results (Asadi et al. 2014; Cordero et al. 2020). For instance, the TiO₂ nanoparticles

288 are progressively removed from the surface of the pavement due to loss of adherence by
289 the effect of traffic, and environments with a higher relative humidity lower the
290 effectiveness of these materials, limiting their use to dry climate areas and to a short-term
291 use (Hingorani et al. 2020).

292 As it has been mentioned in previous sections, pavement mixtures are able to absorb and
293 store solar energy during the daytime. This energy is then released at night, increasing the
294 environment's temperature and generating the so-called urban heat islands, which have a
295 negative impact on the thermal comfort and health of urban populations, especially during
296 heat waves (Heaviside et al., 2017). Equally, these pavement mixtures are impermeable
297 systems that modify the hydrological characteristics of roads environment and, for
298 instance, the natural ecology of the constructed area (Lu et al. 2020; Scholz and
299 Grabowiecki 2007; Tennis et al., 2004). Therefore, to reduce the negative impact of road
300 pavements in the heat exchange between the natural soil interface, the atmosphere, and
301 the rainwater system, pervious pavements are beginning to replace traditional pavement
302 mixtures (Tan et al. 2021; Liu et al. 2020). These pavements are open porous structures
303 capable of accumulating, infiltrating, and purifying natural storm and rainwater and
304 mitigating the urban heat island via evaporative cooling in hot-humid regions (Liu et al.
305 2020; Mullaney y Lucke 2014).

306 Asphalt materials possess the self-healing capability for repairing microcrack damages,
307 which can restore its functionality at least to some extent and considerably reduce
308 maintenance costs, as well as extend its service life and eventually decrease the emission
309 of greenhouse gases (Sun et al. 2018). Equally, in recent years, self-healing concrete that
310 is based on the use of bacteria (bio-concrete) is becoming more important to improve the
311 durability of buildings and structures, especially bridges and roads. The main mechanism

312 of bacterial concrete crack healing is that the bacteria itself acts largely as a catalyst and
313 transforms a precursor compound to a suitable filler material. The newly produced
314 compounds, such as calcium carbonate-based minerals, precipitates as a type of bio-
315 cement which effectively seals newly formed cracks (Jonkers 2011).

316 Recycled plastics can be adopted in different forms to improve the performance and life
317 service of the paved road, reducing the negative environmental impact of road
318 infrastructure and at the same time recycle the plastic waste (Gawande et al. 2012; Chavan
319 2013; S. Yin et al. 2015; Hashem y Cardino 2020; Trubia et al. 2020). Recycled plastic
320 can be deployed as road construction material mixed with concrete, bitumen and also in
321 form of prefabricated panels (Gawande et al. 2012; Yin et al. 2015; Hashem y Cardino
322 2020) . Recycled plastics as polypropylene (PP), (HDPE) and polyethylene terephthalate
323 (PET) can reinforce concrete according to the review of Yin et al. 2015. In the same work,
324 the authors highlight the benefit in the mechanical properties of the concrete if mixed
325 with macro plastics fibres as: improved performance of plastic shrinkage, ductility,
326 flexural resistance, and energy absorbance. The performance of bitumen mixture with
327 plastic additives in controlled conditions in investigated by Gawande et al. 2012 which
328 conclude that the investigated mixture have better performance in stability, fatigue, and
329 strength together with water resistance. Their laboratory results were validated in two
330 different test sites showing reasonable degree of agreement between indoor and outdoor
331 performance. Plastic can be also used in form of prefabricated panels to build roads,
332 according to Trubia et al. (2020) and Hashem and Cardino (2020). According to the
333 authors, the use of these panels can improve the rapidity of the building process, make
334 easier the relative maintenance.

335 **6. Discussion:**

336 This paper presents the use of technologies and environmentally friendly materials for the
337 enhancement of a more sustainable road transport sector. To achieve the sustainable
338 development of road transport, different countries have adopted different strategies. In
339 this paper are discussed the Norwegian strategies toward a more sustainable road
340 transport sector. Norwegian authorities released their strategies in the *National Transport*
341 *Plan 2022-2033* (Det Kongelege Samferdeselsdepartement 2021) and the *National*
342 *Climate Plan 2021-2030* (Det Kongelege Klima Og Miljodepartement 2021) which are
343 characterized by ambitious sustainable and environmental goals and the pervasive use of
344 technologies to achieve them. The *Norwegian Climate Plan* (Det Kongelege Klima Og
345 Miljodepartement 2021) aims to reduce 45% of CO₂ emissions production by 2030. The
346 long-term objective of the Det Kongelege Samferdeselsdepartement (2021) is to build a
347 safe, efficient, and environmentally friendly transport system by 2050. These strategies
348 come along with a wealth of other objectives such as the significant reduction of mortal
349 or severe injured accidents on roads, an improved performance of road transport (e.g.,
350 transport time, road traffic, etc.), and the reduction of air, noise and microplastics
351 pollution. According to both Det Kongelege Klima Og Miljodepartement (2021) and Det
352 Kongelege Samferdeselsdepartement (2021), the Norwegian authorities established a
353 framework of facilitations composed by significant financial investments and a wealth of
354 laws and regulations aiming to: i) develop technologies based on innovation; ii)
355 strengthen the cooperation between the industry and research environments; iii) facilitate
356 the different phases (development, implementation, piloting, operation) of technological
357 solutions; iv) facilitate the use of data-driven technologies.

358 Transport automation, electrification, zero emission mobility, smart mobility, quoting
359 (Det Kongelege Samferdeselsdepartement 2021) “*in themselves also represent new*
360 *solutions to known problems*”. Despite the high potentialities, there are still open
361 challenges to overcome prior to full deployment of these technologies on roads in a
362 sustainable manner. In this regard Shi (2020) envisages the research needs in the CI, such
363 as the optimized performance and design, of harvesting energy road solutions and a better
364 integration between the road infrastructure and ICT. With respect to the automation in
365 road transport, Storsæter, Pitera, and McCormack (2020) define the concept of automated
366 driver as a new road user, suggesting the implementation of these automated road users
367 in the design and maintenance of roads as possible research directions. Equally, the
368 design, construction, and rehabilitation of the infrastructure is known to have an impact
369 on the transport sector’s sustainability (Det Kongelege Klima Og Miljodepartement
370 2021). In this regard, environmentally friendly materials can improve the sustainability
371 of the road infrastructure.

372 Road transport performance and its sustainable impact are also influenced by the
373 maintenance phase (Montoya-Alcaraz et al., 2020). This is true also in winter where the
374 relative maintenance actions, such as road salting and snow removal, have an impact on
375 the road’s sustainability. The former by spreading excessive salt on roads that is harmful
376 to the environment, and the latter by producing excessive CO₂ due to the continuous
377 driving action of snow removal vehicles (Det Kongelege Samferdeselsdepartement
378 2021). Recent research activities show that road salting can be reduced without
379 compromising traffic safety (Giudici et al., 2019; Giudici et al., 2020). However, to the
380 knowledge of the authors, the optimization of snow removal actions still requires

381 attention to prevent the accelerated deterioration of pavements surfaces (Pérez Fortes
382 et al. 2016; Pérez-Fortes, Varas-Muriel, y Castiñeiras 2017; 2021).

383 **7. Conclusions:**

384 This paper presents an overview of recent insights on the use of technologies and
385 environmentally friendly materials for the enhancement of a more sustainable transport
386 sector. The urgent call of sustainability has become a priority where smart roads offer an
387 opportunity to improve the sustainability of the road transport sector. Nowadays more
388 than ever, smart technologies and environmentally friendly materials can improve the
389 sustainability of a road infrastructure and, at the same time, their performances, although
390 important challenges still must be resolved. Finally, we would like to conclude this review
391 with some words from the Norwegian National Transport Plan (Meldt. St. 20, 2021): “*A*
392 *more sustainable transport sector can be done with the co-joint use of technological*
393 *advancements and daring to think in a new way*”.

394

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396

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